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ABSTRACT

An analysis of schema theory at the compositional and sentence levels and its implications for Japanese readers of English prose is presented. The study looks at differences between Japanese and English syntax and concludes with five recommendations for English reading instruction for this group. The recommendations include: (1) pursuing the direction taken in the research of John Hinds (1983, 1987) on Japanese-English contrastive rhetoric for teaching the reading and writing of English composition; (2) applying an "attention-getting device/thematic indicator" paradigm to reading and writing projects, especially in teaching the opening paragraph in expository prose; (3) devising written exercises to practice and test syntactic patterning, especially in well-documented areas of weakness such as subordination, relativization, negation, infinitives, and others; (4) using reading passages that contain target-language culture-specific information; and (5) encouraging rapid expansion of vocabulary beyond the elementary level. (MSE)

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Schema Theory And The Japanese Reader of English

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This paper will examine schema theory vis-à-vis the Japanese reader of English. The application of schema theory will be examined at the compositional and sentence levels. The interrelation of schema on both levels has been well documented (Longacre 1979, Rickard 1979, Hinds 1982, et. al.). Cowan (1976), amongst others, has noted that psycholinguistic research in sentence perception supports a model of the reading process in which the reader matches expectancies set up by ~~the~~ sampling previous syntactic clues in a text with the structural signals that follow. She goes on to state that such expectations are language specific, that when comprehension breakdowns and confusions occur in reading L2, as when Japanese read English, those breakdowns/confusions are syntax related.

John Hinds's work (1983a, 1983b, 1987) in contrastive rhetoric will provide the immediate and major focus for this paper.[1] Hinds inaugurated the study of Japanese/English contrastive rhetoric (1977) in TESL and continues active in the sub-field today. He finds expository prose (1983a) particularly suited to his study since it clearly contrasts Japanese and English (American) logic systems. He does note, however, that since composition is not taught beyond the sixth grade level in Japan, writing there has imported much of the Western logical tradition. The Western tradition, however, is mostly limited to texts (Abe 1977, Kabashima 1979, 1980) which discusss logical organization.

Japanese expository prose (Hinds 1983a) exhibits four different styles, the two most important being "jo-ha-kyuu" and "ki-shoo-ten-ketsu." The former is similar to the normal English rhetorical

style: introduction, development and conclusion. The latter, however, which originated in traditional Chinese poetry is divergent and "ubiquitous in modern prose:"

1)ki	Begins the argument.
2)shoo	Develops it.
3)ten	When the development is complete, the composition turns to a sub-theme that is connected, but only indirectly, to the main one.
4)ketsu	Everything is brought together in the conclusion. (Hinds 1983a)

The break with English exposition obviously occurs at "ten." A discordant element breaks the "normal" progression of the piece. Then follows an equally disjunctive "conclusion" which may or may not frame the argument(s) of the previous discourse. "Ketsu" need not be decisive. All it needs to do is to indicate a doubt or ask a question (Takemata 1976)."

As an example of the above, Hinds (1983b) cites a story, "Harmony in Driving," which appeared in a daily newspaper column of the Asahi Shimbun. The columnist begins by relating his experience of obtaining an American driving license (ki). He develops the thesis by relating an anecdote about his American driving instructor (shoo). Abruptly, he then shifts to a frightening accident that occurred in the Nihonzaka Tunnel of the Tomei Expressway (ten). Had the Japanese motorists maintained the proper distance between cars—the cardinal point of his American instructor—the accident would not have proved so disasterous. The essay closes (ketsu) this way:

> The preventive measures taken by the Japan Highway Public Corporation were grossly inadequate. Experts should be aware of what a lack of water for fire-fighting means in emergencies. They knew but closed their eyes to the fact. The psychology of, 'It will be all right,' on the part of the drivers and the corporation caused this motor accident.
> (Hinds 1983b)

For an American reader, the essay concludes on a bizarre note. Furthermore, the essay as a whole clearly suggests a different set of rhetorical principles at work in Japanese expository prose. At different times Hinds examined several other stories which appeared in the same column. The rhetorical structures were identical.

In one such story, "Vanishing Toki," Hinds (1983b) noted that a single particle, "mo"("too"), in a structure particular to the Japanese language, was essential for the thematic conjunction of several paragraphs of the composition. The translation had failed to register the thematic conjunction because the same structure does not exist in English. "Thus, in addition to contrasting the overall rhetorical styles of two languages, attention must be paid to specific devices which code coherency (Hinds 1983b)."

More specifically, in a Japanese/English structure contrast, Hinds calls our attention to the particle itself. The English equivalents to Japanese particles are usually prepositions and conjunctions. English conjunctions/prepositions do not always serve the same structural functions of their Japanese counterparts. Differences in function and placement will be discussed in detail later in the paper.

Hinds (1983b) also offers a valuable critique of the seminal work of Kaplan (1966) in contrastive rhetoric. He praises Kaplan's pioneering study of rhetorical organization in the paragraphs/essays of five different language groups, but criticizes later researchers (Bander 1978) who did not proceed with Kaplan's caution. Hinds corrects the flaws in Kaplan's original research and further articulates the "Oriental" paragraph.

Kaplan's method of gathering data (i.e. having foreign students from different countries write essays in English) does not necessarily reflect rhetorical strategies of the L1. Errors in L2 essays may or may not result from negative transfer; various stages of the interlanguage can account for some such errors. In order to determine the extent of negative transfer, it is necessary to examine compositions in the foreign languages and isolate their various rhetorical patterns.

Kaplan had overgeneralized "Oriental." Twice in his study, he had differently defined the term. Initially, "Oriental" meant one of three language groups. This usage confused all the major languages of North, South and Central Asia. The second definition refers specifically to Chinese and Korean, excluding Japanese.

The "grouping of Korean and Chinese to the exclusion of Japanese (Hinds 1983b)" is mistaken. Japanese and Korean share common orthographic, structural, semantic and phonological aspects. Both languages have SOV orientations. Chinese has the SVO orientation found in English and other Romance languages. In addition:

> Chinese is topic prominent, while Japanese and Korean share the property of being both

> topic and subject prominent (see Li and Thompson, 1976). His [Kaplan's] more general term Oriental causes even more problems, since it includes members of four language families: Sino-Tibetan(Mandarin), Austro-Asiatic(Cambodian and Vietnamese), Austro-Tai (Thai, Lao, Malay), and Altaic(Japanese and Korean). It also includes the geographic descriptor Indo-Chinese. Again, it is not so much that this faulty characterization has occurred, as the fact that it has been uncritically accepted...

The uncritical acceptance of "Oriental" as late as 1984 by Carrell (see "The Effects of Rhetorical Organization on ESL Readers") necessarily excludes from consideration in this paper much valuable research on rhetorical features of texts. Carrell ~~has~~ has done seminal work on the effects of text structures on second language recall (1984), but she groups Korean and Chinese students together for testing because "there were not enough...subjects to comprise separate groups." In an elaborate footnote to the above-mentioned article, she justified such a grouping because "other studies of 'contrastive rhetoric' have grouped the two (Kaplan 1966)."

A recent study by Hinds (1987) examines cross-cultural variations in English (i.e. American), French and Japanese business letter writing. As might be expected, these cultural variations are evident on the paragraph, sentence and word levels. English business letters are reader oriented; as a result, they place greater emphasis on "le fond" (Guback 1984)—the choice and presentation of ideas. They are personal, empathic, positive in tone, and employ psychological appeals. The number of formulaic expressions are minimized. In regard to form, there is considerable variation as

reflected by layout and appearance.

Contrastingly, Japanese business letters are geared to the space between reader and writer. The establishment of an appropriate relationship ~~between~~ between reader and writer is reflected in the concern for "la forme" (Guback 1984) and the language employed to maintain such relation. Japanese form is prescriptively consistent. The business letter itself consists of three parts: the introduction ("bootoo"), body ("shubun") and conclusion ("matsubun").

Although the general organizational pattern of the Japanese business letter is consistent with the English one, various formulaic strategies and expressions are employed to produce radically different results. The Japanese introduction always consists of two parts: the appropriate salutation—one of four choices—and seasonal greeting. Then follows a second greeting in which words concerning health, thanks, and apology are conveyed. Only then does one get to the body of the letter, and a concise statement of the reason for writing. This reason is buried deep in the letter. The conclusion follows, in two sections: formulaic "best wishes" and an equally formulaic ending. Proceeding in this manner, the space/distance between reader and writer has been protected.

The need for space is culturally determined; it reflects a social system with a vertical hierarchy. It is only through the use of suitably appropriate formulaic expressions and three levels of honorific diction ('keigo") that one can maintain the appropriate relationship between individuals. As Hinds (1987) notes,

"Whereas English speakers are interested in leveling out social status...Japanese speakers are not concerned about social inequality as long as the relative status of individuals is known." Indeed, a Japanese writer/speaker will certainly feel uncomfortable if he does not know "what level of honorifics to accord the partner."

As in previous articles, Hinds focuses on particle usage. On the level of honorific usage, there are no equivalent particles in English, and Hinds employs a table of various particles to emphasize the importance of maintaining a consistent relationship between reader and writer. Even particles, which sometimes have no meaning whatsoever, serve as social status markers between reader and writer or speaker and listener.

Japanese and English business letter writing suggest striking sociocultural implications. Writers and readers alike depend on mutually foregrounded subject matter—what we used to call "background information"—which is socioculturally determined. As has been noted in many studies (Loveday 1982, Takemoto 1982), the L1 sociolinguistic encoding which a speaker or reader brings into a L2 situation will, at least in part, determine his/her response to that L2 situation. As Hinds has shown, this sociolinguistic encoding filters down even to the particle level in Japanese.

Cross-culturally, even the simple English "no" (Loveday 1982) can produce disasterous complications because the word is a "term of abuse" to the Japanese. This type of sociolinguistic "communicative reinterpretation" (Schulte-Pelkum 1972) occurs constantly, and must be taken into account in L2 reading situations, especially

at the beginning and intermediate levels.

Having synthesized the studies of Kaplan, Hinds, Labov (1972) and Hymes (1974), Scarcella (1984) focuses on the orientation of the reader in English expository prose. Orientations prepare the reader for the information to follow. They generally occur at the beginning of the English composition to aid the reader in identifying and understanding the theme. In meticulous detail, Scarcella articulates the various techniques employed in writing effective English orientations—thusly cueing the reader to interpret the essay's main direction of development.

Scarcella divides these techniques into two categories: attention-getting devices and thematic indicators. The attention-getting devices include:

1) cataphoric reference--"the use of a reference item which does not refer to preceding text," but to text which follows

   e.g. John went there. He had never been to Colorado before.

2) interrogatives/rhetorical questions
3) direct assertion
4) structural repetitions
5) short, abrupt elements
6) sentence initial adverb and verb sequence
7) historical context (Scarcella 1984)

The thematic indicators are: explicit statement, presequencing ("the use of sentences whose main function is to signal that what follows is the theme"), repetition of key words/phrases, paraphrase, and explanation (defining sentences which explicate the

thesis).

In comparative testing situations at the university level (i.e. incoming freshmen), non-native English writers did not employ most of these devices (Scarcella 1984). They wrote on a topic, "Changes That Have Taken Place In The Writer's Country During The Last Ten Years," that failed to interest native English speakers. (However, most of the essays would have interested readers from their own cultures.) Of note were the performances of the oriental students who were divided into first language groups (Japanese, Korean and Taiwan Chinese). Each group was reluctant to express the theme directly, possibly due to cultural differences in the use of politeness. They tended to state their themes implicitly by preceding the theme with repetitions and explanations. Significantly, the Japanese students wrote orientations which were much shorter than those of the other two groups. Their orientations compared favorably with the brief native English orientations.

This comparative approach suggests the existence of an interlanguage among the Japanese writers since Japanese expository prose, as noted by Hinds (1983a, 1983b, 1987), does not follow the English model in regards to orientation. (Scarcella's articulation of English writing orientation techniques will prove very useful later on when this writer will analyze an essay written by an incoming ILI student at the University of South Florida.)

Cowan (1976) endorses Goodman's "psycholinguistic guessing game" model (1965, 1967) for reading in L2. Goodman asserts that reading is an active process in which the reader forms a preliminary expectation of what will happen next based on minimal language clues

decoded from a just sampled text. As the information is being processed, tentative decisions are being made to confirm, reject or refine the reader's guessing (Clarke and Silberstein 1977).

Experimental evidence from investigations into the nature of sentence perception in L1 (Bever 1970) confirms Goodman's model—"native speakers of English employ semantic and sequential labeling strategies to achieve plausible interpretations of perceptually difficult constructions like center embedded sentences." When interpretation breaks down—i.e. when the violation of reader expectancy occurs—the reader searches through previous textual clues "which reflect the syntax, to determine how they may be reinterpreted."

> Recognition of the fact that the entire noun phrase, first verb and the following prepositional phrase function together as the actor, and that the second verb expresses the action of the main clause puts the reader on a new decoding track ~~which~~ which leads to the comprehension of the intended meaning.
>
> If we accept the possibility that perceptual strategies like those postulated by Bever[2] are actively employed by native speakers in decoding spoken or written language, it is reasonable to suppose that learning to read a foreign language must be impeded by the learner's application of perceptual strategies in the native language(Cowan 1976).

The most persistent competing syntactic strategies which produce interpretive breakdown in L1/L2 processing situations are negation, relativization and co-reference(pronominalization strat-

egy)--(Cowan 1976). Although pronominalization is a major problem for native English speakers when reading a certain L2, e.g. Japanese, Japanese speakers experience only minor pronominalization problems when reading English. Lessons in pronoun/antecedent agreement will correct almost all reading errors at the advanced level. (Although Japanese does employ pronominalization, the Japanese people are notorious for omitting pronouns, especially from informal writing and speech. The reason, again, is sociocultural—inexplicit reference in speech and informal writing is not considered a flaw as most Japanese prefer to float along with the argument and guess at the intended reference.[2] In addition, it is impolite to use certain personal pronouns, especially "kare"("he"), "konojo"("she") and "omae"("you"), in most discourse situations.)

Negation and relativization, however, are major stumbling blocks for Japanese speakers, and will be discussed at length later in this paper.

Cowan (1976) is hopeful that "Further investigation of the kinds of comprehension problems resulting from the application of native language perceptual strategies in a second language reading situation may produce evidence which bears on two areas of interest in psycholinguistics: (1) the formulation of an explanatorily adequate model of second language acquisition, and (2) a more accurate characterization of the ill-understood but intuitively compelling notion 'perceptual strategy.'" She is convinced that perceptual strategies do not operate independently of the L1 grammar system:

Common to the expectancies described

> here and the strategies cited by Bever are presuppositions about language-specific phenomena such as word groupings which constitute potential external units corresponding to noun phrases, verb phrases, clauses, etc. It follows that if we wish to understand the nature of perceptual strategies and the manner in which they operate in second language acquisition, we must consider the structural characteristics of the native and target language.

Cowan concludes that adult second language learning is a "complex interaction or processes" which must take into account the influence of the native language, learning strategies confined to the target language, and "possible" external factors such as pedagogical modes. (This writer firmly believes that, in the case of Japanese students, pedagogical modes do affect performance in English. The "transfer of training" process (Selinker 1972) vis-à-vis English begins in the Japanese junior school where grammar, reading and writing are emphasized. This same curricular emphasis is maintained throughout high school and university English training programs simply because English is conceived of in purely academic terms and not as a living language. In other words, English is a subject to be passed or failed based on written test results. As a result, Japanese students with English training on the Japanese university level have developed fairly extensive interlanguages in the reading and writing areas. Conversely, speaking and listening show almost no development whatsoever.)

In discussing sentence perception in the L1, Cowan made an interesting observation about the following sentence: "The pushing

bulldozer pushed past the barn [and] crashed into the fence." The sentence is subject to "segmentation strategies" of the following kind: N...V...N clause as main clause "unless the verb is marked as subordinate." Secondly, "Any Noun-Verb-Noun (NVN) sequence within the surface structure corresponds to 'actor-action-object.'" She obviously believes that the application of case grammar analysis to both L1 and L2 reading situations will enhance research on perceptual strategies and language decoding. Other researchers (Richards 1976) agree with her.

Conners (1984) notes extensive use of case grammar (Fillmore 1968) by Meyer (1975) in her content-structure analysis of texts. According to Meyer, a text is "a set of interrelated simple propositions that together form a complex proposition." What constitutes a simple proposition—a meaning unit which always consists of a predicate and one or more arguments—is taken from Fillmore. How propositions fit together ~~was~~ is culled from Grimes' theories (1975) of rhetorical predication.

Although case grammar is a "deep-structure, sentence(clause)-level semantic model (Conner 1984)," it "can be applied to analysis of texts larger than a sentence." Case grammars readily accomodate compound and complex sentences (i.e. problems of embedding and subordination) and, therefore, are very useful to Meyer's content-structure analysis of English expository prose texts. In her study, Conners also utilizes the work of a later case grammarians (Cook 1979).

In a reading experiment, adult students from three different language backgrounds—English, Japanese and Spanish—read an English

passage and wrote immediate recalls. Not surprisingly, the native English speakers demonstrated the highest performance in terms of total recall. "Yet, unexpectedly, there was no significant differences between these groups in the recall of the high-level ideas of the text (Conner 1984)." The difference in total recall between the native and non-native groups was in the number of subordinate ideas recalled.

Considering the fact that the eleven native speakers of Japanese who performed in the experiment were enrolled in the most advanced ESL classes in the intensive program at Georgetown University, this writer is not at all surprised by the recall results. Japanese in advanced ESL classes at American universities have developed extensive English syntactic patterning which is comparable to that of native English speakers. This accounts for the similar results in the recall of high-level ideas. For any given language, there is comparatively little development of syntax after age twelve, whereas a native speaker of a language continues to expand his vocabulary throughout adulthood. That the non-native speaker has a less developed vocabulary, and is missing or misunderstands a syntactic pattern or two, may well explain his weaker performance in subordinate ideas.

Such an assumption seems confirmed by Schachter (1976). High-intermediate and advanced Japanese ESL students at the University of Southern California were presented with sets of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences in English, and were asked to evaluate the grammaticality of each sentence. All of the experimental sentences

contained relative clauses, four sentences from English and two (malformed) from a non-native language.

The results of the Japanese group differed substantially from those of all other first language groups tested—Arabic, Chinese, Persian and Spanish. The Japanese responded randomly to sentences which elicited Japanese-specific syntactic patterns, yet identified as grammatical any relative clause structure that was not Japanese! (As expected, all of the other groups had responded randomly to sentences which contained non-native relative clauses.) Test results indicated that the Japanese students' interlanguages were deficient in relative clause structures. The results demonstrated the authors' principle of language determinacy and indeterminacy:

> There are strings [of words] which the learner knows to be grammatical or ungrammatical, because he has internalized rules which allow him to make judgments on them. These are the determinate strings. But there are also strings about which the learner has no knowledge at all, because, with his incomplete rule system, he does not have internalized rules which will allow him to make judgments on them. These are the indeterminate strings (Schachter 1976).

Having digested Hinds' studies in contrastive rhetoric and related studies of other researchers in L2 reading, this writer will now examine an English composition written by a Japanese student upon entering the International Language Institute at the University of South Florida in 1984. This essay will be analyzed at both the macro (composition) and micro (sentence) levels. The writer

feels confident that an effective error analysis of the passage will further demonstrate the usefulness of contrastive rhetoric/contrastive analysis in the teaching of reading/writing in L2. The Japanese student who wrote the following essay—twenty minute time limit—had at least six years of formal English training:

> First of all, I wanted to know what American and another country's people think. And I also wanted to experient american life with different kinds of people. I think English is a most important language in the world now. We realy need how to have relation ship with United State in English. However, it is difficult to become to be able to speak English if I'm stay in my country. I thought that it was the best way to come to U.S.A to study English. On other word, I wanted to keep myself stay in U.S.A on porpose. I beleave that this experence will became good for me in my life.

On the paragraph level, this essay attests to the existence of a developed interlanguage. The writer has a superficial knowledge of English paragraph form: he indents, and holds the paragraph together with correctly spaced sentences. He orients the reader immediately, directly identifying a thesis in the first sentence.

On the other hand, he asserts thesis after thesis until, two-thirds of the way through this paragraph/essay, the major (?) theme appears: "However, it is difficult to become to be able to speak English if I'm stay in my country. I thought that..." The

paragraph, actually a string of theses sentences, displays little organization, development or unity. The composition concludes as abruptly as it began, and there is no sense of conclusion in the usual sense. The student has not reiterated his thesis; there is no closing summary frame.

Still on the paragraph level, Scarcella's attention-getting devices/thematic indicator paradigm will prove useful in analyzing the composition. The presence of an interlanguage is reflected in the writer's use of direct assertion ("I think English is a most important language"; "it was the best way..."), structural repetition ("I wanted to know...I wanted to experient"), and sentence initial adverbs ("First of all"). Nonetheless, these attention-getting devices are few and far between; the majority of them—cataphoric reference, interrogatives, abrupt elements, historical context—simply do not appear in the composition.

The only thematic indicators employed were explicit statement, i.e. the use of an explicit discourse signal to mark a theme ("First of all..."), and repetition of key words ("in English," "speak English," "study English"). The writer has no sense of pre-sequences, paraphrase and explanation, i.e. definition sentences. Out of fairness to the writer, it should be noted that twenty minutes does not leave much time for a L2 writer to display all the devices available to a proficient native English writer. Furthermore, topic limitation may exclude the use of some of Scarcella's devices and indicators. Finally, a L2 reader may well recognize several of Scarcella's orientation devices without being able to articulate them in written discourse.

For this writer, the most revealing aspects of interlanguage processing takes place at the sentence level. Conspicuous by their absence are the definite and indefinite articles--"the," "an," and "a"--(Japanese has none.) The use of relative pronoun/clause is nowhere to be found, but other errors in syntactic patterning abound ("We really need how to have..."; "However, it is difficult to become to be able..."). Use of "to," especially in an infinitive (The Japanese infinitive form consists of one word.), is a constant problem, as are the uses of plural nouns (Usually, the Japanese do not use plural markers for nouns.), irregular verbs (Japanese has few.), prepositions and conjunctions (particle-related), and transition words.

In fact, all major problems on the sentence level in the above composition can be determined by contrastive analysis. In all of the above-cited instances, Japanese surface structures vary radically from their English counterparts. A closer examination of specific English and Japanese structures, say of coordinators and subordinators, on the sentence level will illuminate many of the problems Japanese speakers face when reading English texts.

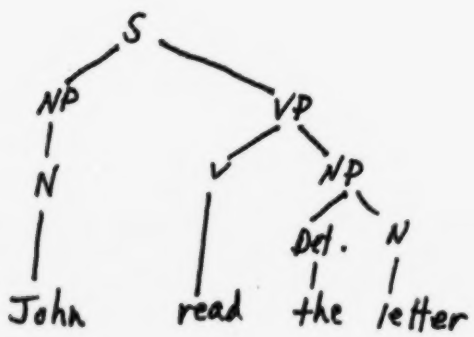
Takayanagi (1975) focuses upon the structural differences between Japanese and English, and how these differences affect the comprehension of Japanese readers of English. She suggests that "one dimension which may have some universal predictive validity for determining problems adult second language learners may have in learning to read a second language, is when a L1 surface structure pattern is the exact opposite of an L2 pattern which performs

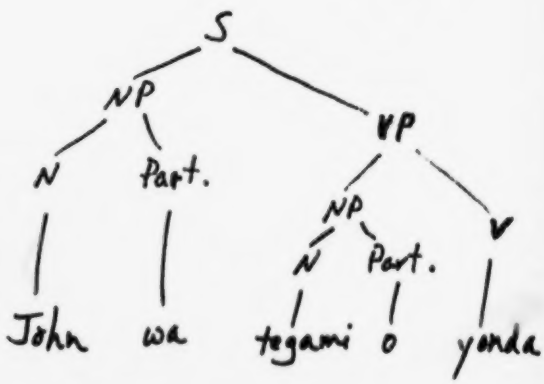
the same function." Takayanagi's suggestion/hypothesis has sparked subsequent research (Cowan 1976, Kuno 1978, Makino 1978, Hinds 1982) and further confirmed her findings.

For Takayanagi, the most fundamental structural differences between Japanese and English are fourfold:

1) Japanese has SOV orientation; English has SVO orientation.
2) Japanese has many postpositional particles, but no prepositional particles; English has prepositional "particles" (i.e. prepositions and conjunctions).
3) Japanese is a left-branching language; English is right-branching.
4) Japanese has backward gapping; English is characterized by forward gapping.

Takayanagi provides ample evidence for her fourfold taxonomy. Especially cogent are her demonstrations of Japanese left-branching when Japanese students read simple and complex English sentences. The simple sentence, "John read the letter." is contrasted transformationally in English and Japanese:

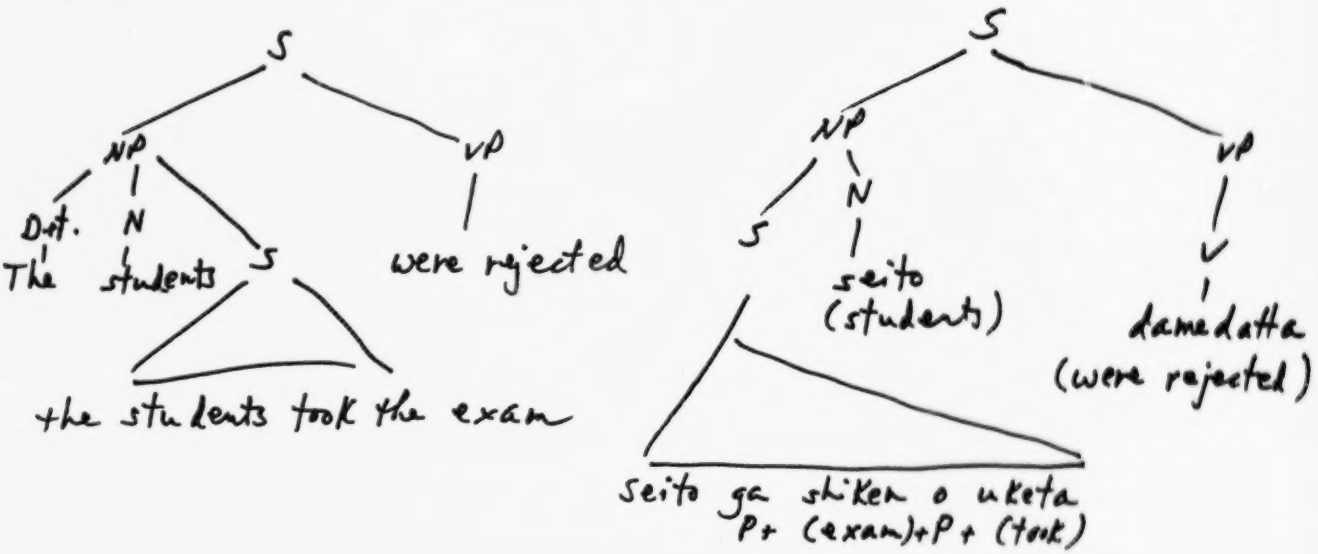




Beginning Japanese students change the word order, delete the article, and imput the proper particles, thusly decoding the sentence word by word. This takes time, much more time than it

does for, say, a Spanish speaker to decode the sentence. Japanese problems with simple English sentences, however, are minor in comparison with the difficulties they experience in decoding English complex sentences.

Takayanagi examines sentences with relative clauses because their structures are closely related to right/left branching differences between Japanese and English. The sentence, "The students who took the exam yesterday were rejected." is treed in English and Japanese:



Branching differences are obvious. As Takayanagi notes, "In Japanese, relative clauses precede their antecedents, while in English they follow them. Japanese also lacks the relative pronouns found in English (1975)." She concludes that Japanese learners of English shouldn't have much problem in making the syntactic adjustment, but that the adjustment does entail a slowing down of the learning to read process. Until the Japanese learner has com-

pletely internalized the English relative clause structure rules, he or she will go back time and again to look for "head nouns" upon encountering the relative clause in his or her readings. This cuts down on reading speed.

Difference in left and right-branching is only one of many difficulties involved in relative clause patterning between the two languages. "Japanese has no phonological, morphological or syntactic distinctions between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses." (Takayanagi 1975) Therefore, because the Japanese do not ~~distinguish~~ usually discriminate between the two, they would have trouble discerning the different meanings of:

1. The Japanese, who are diligent, work for ten hours.
2. The Japanese who are diligent work for ten hours.

Additionally, in Japanese relative clauses, particles attached to the relativized noun are deleted. In English relativization, no words are deleted; the preposition stays in place, or appears before the relative pronoun:

English: The hole out <u>of</u> <u>which</u> a rat comes is big.

Japanese: Nezumi ga detekita ana wa ookii desu.
rat + ga + came out hole + wa + big is.

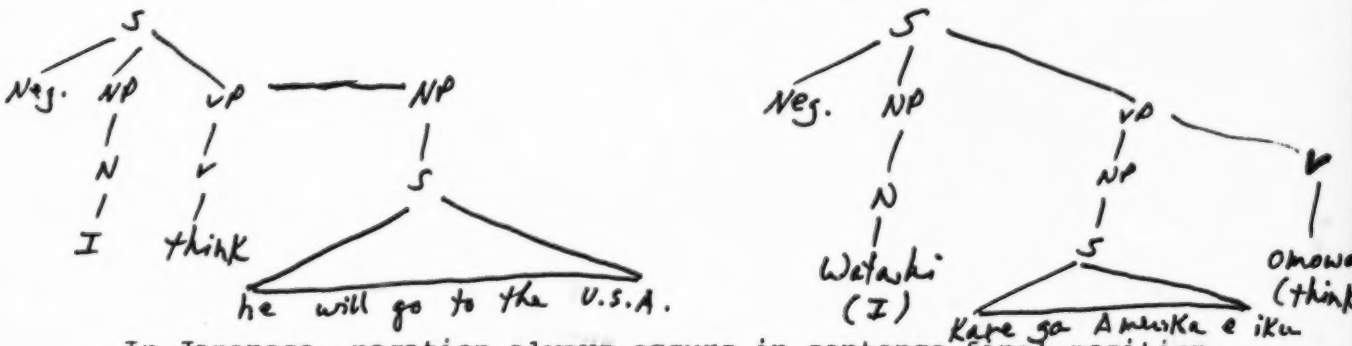
The Japanese for "out of" ("kara") is automatically deleted by the relativization. "When Japanese students face the sentences which contain the preposition with the relative pronoun, they often

have to stop and think how the preposition relates to the relative pronoun (Takayanagi 1975)." Again, this reading strategy takes time and reduces reading speed.

Another left-branching construction which hinders the Japanese reader of English is the complex negative sentence (Takayanagi 1975; see also Rickard 1979). Examine the following sentence:

a. I do not think he will go to the U.S.A.

b. Kare ga Amerika e iku to Watashi wa omowa nai.
he + P + U.S.A. + P + go that I + P + think not.



In Japanese, negation always occurs in sentence final position. Japanese students will process the English sentence accordingly and conclude with "think not." Negation is not a serious problem in the preceding sentence, but now consider this one:

a. Unless we all agree, we cannot start the project.

b. Minna ga sansei shinai naraba sono
we all + P + agree not if the

keikaku o hajimeraremasen.
project + P + start cannot. (Takayanagi 1975)

In Japanese, there are no subordinators which function like the English "unless." "Unless" is a conjunction which connotes nega-

tivity. No Japanese conjunction connotes negativity. Furthermore, in Japanese, negation comes at the end, in apposition to the conjunction (S^1 nai naraba S^2.) "Unless" begins the English sentence! The Japanese conjunction ("naraba") follows the subordinated sentence.

Finally, the Japanese subordinator is always attached to a verb ending:

itta+ra.....ittara
go + if if (I) go

itteiru+noni.....itteirunoni
am going+although although (I) am going

(This is Ryan's example, not Takayanagi's.)

The English subordinator never is. Takayanagi rightly concludes, "The most important factor in teaching reading to Japanese students is to stress the position of English conjunctions and subordinators (1975)."

IMPLICATIONS:

The organization of this paper suggests certain interrelated implications, on the macro and micro levels, for the teaching of reading to Japanese students. The general implications, I believe, are fivefold. To maximize the effectiveness of the reading process for Japanese readers of English, the TESL/TEFL instructor should:

1) follow Hinds' lead in contrastive rhetoric for teaching reading/writing of English composition

2) apply Scarcella's "attention-getting device/thematic indicator" paradigm to reading/writing projects, especially in teaching the reading/writing of the opening paragraph in expository prose

3) devise written exercises which practice and test syntactic patterning, especially the well-documented weaker areas—subordination, relativization, negation, infinitives, etc.

4) use reading passages which contain target language culture specific information

5) encourage rapid expansion of vocabulary beyond the elementary level—as Twaddell (1973) has demonstrated, the number of medium and high frequency words in use in English is small. A vast number of very-low frequency words are in use.

ENDNOTES

[1]Prof. Hinds is immensely qualified for his work in Japanese/English contrastive rhetoric. He received his Ph.D. in Linguistics from the State University of New York at Buffalo. From 1972 until 1975 he taught English and linguistics at the Univ. of the Sacred Heart, in Tokyo. From 1975 until 1980 he taught Japanese language and linguistics at the Univ. of Hawaii. For one and a half years thereafter, he taught Japanese at the Univ. of Minnesota before assuming the directorship of the Center for English as a Second Language at The Pennsylvania State University. (It should be noted that the Japanese Departments at both Hawaii and Minnesota are world renowned.)

[2]A Japanese friend has said to me, "When speaking Japanese, we are not really worried about the specific person being referred to. We just go along with the conversation and guess according to the situation."

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